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*UNION SCHOOLS.**

THE greatest need of the common schools of this country is a well-organized system of instruction. It is obvious to every one that a course of study adapted to the capacity of the more advanced pupils cannot be successfully pursued by the primary classes; and it ought to be just as obvious that the system of discipline, and the methods of imparting instruction in the two cases, should be different. Educators have long since demonstrated that certain fixed principles, both of instruction and discipline, are adapted to the different ages and development of pupils; and they have shown that a philosophical system of education will recognize these differences, and apply the principles in the arrangement of schools and in the construction of school-houses.

When pupils of all ages and states of advancement are

* From Johonnot's new work on "School-Houses."

brought together into one room for the purposes of education, as in our ordinary district schools, the work of instruction is very imperfectly performed. The quietness and attention to study necessary to the progress and highest success of an advanced school cannot be enforced in primary classes without seriously injuring the pupils, both physically and mentally; and conversely, the frequent change of position and noise incident thereon, indispensable to primary classes, cannot be permitted in a more advanced school without a relaxation of discipline and an interference with study incompatible with its highest interests.

Again, the kind of instruction and the methods of imparting it are essentially different in the two cases. With primary classes the instruction should be confined principally to the elements of science objectively presented, and made interesting by appealing directly to the senses. The subject of instruction should be gradually developed, and the lessons principally oral. In the higher schools this system is changed. The primary knowledge having been gained, the expanding minds instinctively seek generalizations and principles. This requires quiet for thought, study, and reflection; and this quiet is not attainable in a room when primary instruction is properly going on. Our schools can never reach their highest state until these two incompatible states of discipline and instruction are finally and effectively separated.

Among the other faults of ungraded schools may be enumerated the following:—" 1st. The difficulty of having the school-room properly seated so as to accommodate all sizes of pupils. 2d. The great range of studies necessary to be pursued at the same time, rendering it difficult for the teacher to reach a high degree of excellence in the teaching of any. 3d. The great number of classes, allowing the teacher an entirely inadequate portion of time to each, and causing him to hurry from one to the other so rapidly that he cannot do justice to any. 4th. The confused and desultory manner in which instruction is carried on renders the school unattractive both to pupil and parent, and, consequently, there is little interest manifested in its welfare.

These difficulties will never be entirely removed until our

schools are graded, and there has been developed and applied a complete and thorough system of instruction. This system should embrace, substantially, the whole course now pursued in our common schools, academies, and colleges, open to all, but allowing each individual to take only such portions of the advanced course as suits his inclination and circumstances. The application of the different portions of this system to the different grades of schools, and the nice adaptation of its progressive parts, are problems which demand the highest wisdom combined with the largest experience; but when once solved, they will be of incalculable benefit to education everywhere.

When such a system of instruction becomes established, the schools must be more efficient, and pupils will advance with greater rapidity. Teachers will not be left in doubt as to what course to pursue; for a specific work, arranged for each term and year, must be accomplished. Teaching will progress according to well-defined principles, instead of being left to individual caprice. The gradation, thorough system, and division of labor, will effect a saving of time equal to one-half of the entire period now allotted to the school-room, thereby doubling the educational advantages of our children. The means of a liberal education will be brought within the reach of all, at a cost but little greater than that of our present imperfect and inefficient course.

A full enumeration of the advantages of the proposed improvements, and of the changes necessary to effect it, would fill a volume. A very brief view of the main features of the system, as far as they relate to the general organization of schools and the building of school-houses, is all that we need attempt here.

PRIMARY SCHOOLS.—Primary Schools should embrace a five years' course of study, extending from the age of five to ten years, with pupils of the average ability. They should take the place of the present District Schools, and be brought within the reach of every home in the land. The instruction should proceed in a regular course, and the pupils should be advanced, year by year, into higher classes, until the whole five years' course is thoroughly mastered.

INTERMEDIATE SCHOOLS.—Intermediate Schools should embrace a four years' course of study, continuing the work of instruction to the age of fourteen. They should be made up of a sufficient number of pupils from the Primary Schools to furnish the requisite number of a proper grade. The instruction here should be systematic, and the pupils advanced, year by year, as in the Primary Schools. The course of study in these schools would be about the same as that now pursued in our academies and in the higher classes of our common schools.

HIGH SCHOOLS.—High Schools should embrace a four years' course, carrying on instruction to the age of eighteen. Such schools might be composed of the pupils from a dozen or more intermediate districts. The instruction in these schools would be equivalent to that of our ordinary colleges, though perhaps of a more immediately practical character. This would complete the system of strictly public schools, though, beyond them, those of a special character would be established,—all necessary to the perfect development of a scheme of National education. Prominent among these would be the following:

THE UNIVERSITY.—The University should be devoted to professional instruction in the departments of Science, Language, General Literature, Law, Medicine, and Divinity. It should be the crowning glory of all, carrying instruction to the highest point attainable in our present civilization, and elevating civilization itself. It should present the golden opportunity to the scholar in pursuit of the highest culture, and prove the perpetual fountain from which knowledge would flow downward through all the grades of schools, until it reaches every inhabitant of the land, and elevates humanity to a higher level. The graduates of the University would naturally become the teachers of the High Schools, and from these last would come the great mass of the teachers of the Intermediate and Primary Schools.

NORMAL SCHOOLS.—Normal Schools, for the professional instruction of teachers, would find their appropriate place. Such persons only as had mastered the High School course

should be admitted to the Normal Schools, and the two or three years spent in them should be devoted to the examination of the laws which underlie all systems of instruction, and the best methods of putting in practice the principles so developed. Then teaching would no longer be left to the caprice of ignorance, but would be intelligently and systematically carried on by persons masters of their profession.

WORK SCHOOLS.—All pupils should be obliged to take the course marked out for Primary and Intermediate Schools, but beyond this, entire freedom might be allowed. The great mass of pupils would probably not wish to obtain a liberal education, and would desire immediate entrance into some branch of industry. For the accommodation of this class, Work Schools should be established, in which they could obtain a knowledge of the fundamental principles of the business in which they are to be engaged. These Work Schools would include Mechanical, Agricultural, Mercantile, Manufactures, and Mining Schools, Schools of Design, etc.

When this system of graded schools becomes the ruling policy, and there shall be established Professional and Work Schools to perfect it; when all these are consolidated and crystallized into a great national system, reaching from ocean to ocean, and so ubiquitous and Argus-eyed that no child in the Republic can evade its sight or escape its influence; then will labor, organized into system, be respected and honored by all men; then will each individual have the opportunity and all the necessary aids to secure the development of his peculiar talent in the direction that nature designed; and then we may expect a higher and more beneficent civilization.

In cities, villages, and the more thickly populated portions of the country, the systematic gradation of schools can be easily adopted, and the great advantages arising therefrom at once secured. Indeed, the system is now substantially adopted in most of our larger cities. In the more sparsely settled portions of the country it is difficult to establish any general system that is entirely unobjectionable; but even

there, a steady policy of consolidating districts instead of dividing them would be beneficial, while the entire benefits of graded schools might be realized by the abolishment of districts and the substitution therefor of town schools.

Where the gradation of schools has been established, two or more grades are often united in one building, under the distinctive name of "Union Schools:" and Union School-houses have become one of the "institutions" of the land. These houses, of necessity, must be larger and more costly than the common District School-houses; yet the cost must be far less than the aggregate cost of several separate houses affording the same accommodations. The lot, out-buildings, and general surroundings of a Union School-house will cost no more than those belonging to each of the smaller houses; so the argument, on the score of economy, is entirely in favor of Union School-houses.

The comparison is sometimes made between the cost of a large, well built, and commodious Union School-house, possessing all the modern improvements, and that of several of the old-fashioned, ill-constructed, and miserably-furnished houses, where children were packed almost to suffocation, and the balance has been in favor of the latter; but it is unnecessary to say that such a comparison is one-sided and unfair, and that to make it of any value, the same conditions must be preserved in the two cases.

In Massachusetts, where the old system of independent districts has been in operation for nearly two centuries, the schools of each town have recently been consolidated into a Union district with its primary, intermediate, and high schools. The result of the experiment has been satisfactory in the extreme. A genuine educational revival has taken place. Much more attention is paid to schools on the part of communities, a constant demand is made for better qualified teachers, and large numbers of new and improved school-houses have been erected. All parties interested unite in commendation of the new system, as greatly superior to the old in efficiency and in the economic expenditure of money.

[In our next we shall present suitable designs for Union School-houses.]

ERRORS IN THE USE OF PREPOSITIONS.

IV.—MISAPPLICATIONS.

IN a previous number of this series of articles we had occasion to refer to the fact that certain words followed by a preposition are used in one sense, while, in order to express a different meaning, the same words need sometimes to be followed by an additional preposition; as, "to go through"—"to go through with." There are also words that are used with one preposition in one sense, and with another in another; so that, in order to express the meaning intended, it is important to employ the preposition idiomatically appropriated or conventionally assigned to that duty. In these cases, however, a misapplication of prepositions is no uncommon thing. We propose to note merely a few instances of this nature.

The verb *abound* has two meanings: 1. To be abundant; and 2. To overflow, or be abundantly supplied. In the former sense, when followed by a preposition, that preposition is usually *in* or *on*, denoting where the thing spoken of abounds. Examples: "Gold abounds *in* California."

> "*In* thee
> Love hath abounded more than glory abounds."

In the other sense the proper preposition to be used is *with*. Examples:

"The Romans abounded *with* little honorary rewards."—*Addison, Guardian.*

"The letter abounds *with* the spirit of mirth and good humor."—*Steele, Spectator.*

"Their country abounds *with* elephants."—*Harper's Magazine*, Vol. xxiii.

"The path to bliss abounds *with* many a snare."—*Cowper.*

"And *with* brave spirits France ne'er did more abound."—*Drayton.*

Yet many, and among them the best of writers, do not scruple to use *in*, in this case, rather than *with*. "He abounds *in* several frugal maxims."—*Steele, Spectator.* (Steele uses *in* or *with* indiscriminately.) "This country does not

abound *in* characters like theirs."—*Junius.* Indeed, we are not sure that "abound in" is not more commonly used by all classes of writers and speakers than "abound with." Yet none of these writers would say instead, "be abundantly supplied *in*," "be abundantly possessed *in*," or "overflow *in*." *With* is the word that would be used here. So, properly speaking, we should say "The book abounds *with* beauties;" "This country does not abound *with* characters like theirs;" "Well may his heart *with* joy and bliss abound;" etc.

Among the meanings of the transitive verb *compare* are these two: 1. To liken, for the purpose of illustration; and 2. To measure with respect to resemblances. In the former sense the word is used to bring into comparison things of different kinds or natures, and is properly followed by *to;* as, "Solon compared the *people* TO the *sea*, and *orators* and *counsellors* TO the winds." That is, he likened them, for illustration, *to* the sea—*to* the winds. In the other sense, *compare* is used in drawing resemblances between things of a similar kind or nature, and should be followed by *with.* Examples: "A well-written *book*, compared WITH its *rivals* and *antagonists*, is like Moses' serpent."—*Addison, Spectator.* "The *number* of those who suffer by his personal vices is small when compared WITH the *number* of those to whom his talents are a source of gratification."—*Macaulay, Miscel.* "It is possible for their integrity to be degraded to a *condition* so vile that, compared WITH it, the present estimation they stand in is a *state* of honor and respect."—*Junius.*

> "This *earth*, a spot, a grain,
> An atom, WITH the *firmament* compared
> And all her numbered *stars*."—*Milton.*

Yet, when used in this sense, *compare* is not unfrequently erroneously coupled with *to:* "His power is that of a parish beadle compared *to* mine."—*A. R. Hope.* "I found I had run it over as a matter of form in comparison *to* the manner in which I then discharged it."—*Steele, Spect. To,* in these and similar instances, should be *with*—"compared with"—"in comparison with."

Among the meanings commonly given to the verb *consist* are these three: 1. To be compatible, to agree; 2. To be

comprised; and 3. To be composed. In the first of these senses, it should be followed by *with;* in the second by *in;* and in the third by *of*. Examples:

1. "It cannot consist *with* a liberal spirit."—*Junius.*

"Orders and degrees
Jar not *with* liberty, but well consist."—*Milton.*

2. "We do not know *in* what reason and instinct consist."
—*Dr. Johnson.*

"If monarchy consist *in* such base things,
Sighing, I say again, I pity kings."—*Cowper.*

3. "An immense proportion of its vocabulary consists either *of* simple primitives or *of* words obviously drawn by composition or derivation from radicals still existing."—*G. P. Marsh.* "Only the principal compositions *of* which it consists are enumerated.—*G. L. Craik.* "This world, *of* heaven and earth consisting."—*Milton.*

In the use of this word, however, in the second and third of these senses, the preposition is not unfrequently misapplied. The following examples will afford illustrations of this. The Hon. Joseph Holt, in an address delivered in this city about twelve years ago, is reported to have said, "*On* this unity of a country and a government and a people consists at once our greatness and our happiness."—*N. Y. Times*, Sept. 3, 1861. To say nothing of the misuse of *consists* for *consist*, the word *on* here may be merely a misprint for *in*, or it may have been spoken with reference to being followed by *depend*, which in the excitement of the occasion might easily have been lost sight of and given up for *consists*. Again: "Spoken language consists *in* sounds which [that] are signs of ideas."—*Clark, First Less. in Gram.* The error in this example of course consists in using *in* for *of*, inasmuch as the reference is not to some substance, nature, act, or fact in which the thing spoken of is supposed to lie or consist, but to the parts of which it is regarded as made up.

Differ is another of these words which should be followed by different prepositions, according to the use that is made of it. In reference to properties—form, size, color, age, height, etc.—objects are spoken of as differing *from* each other; as, "One star differeth *from* another star in glory;" "How the hero differs *from* the brute!" But, when used in the sense of "disagree," or with reference to a difference

of opinion, *differ*, like the word *disagree*, idiomatically calls for *with*. Thus: "Those who differ *with* you in their sentiments."—*Addison*. "Much as I may differ *with* that gentleman both as to men and measures, yet such is my opinion of his talents and his worth that I would rejoice to see him filling the highest of the executive departments of this government."—*Andrew Stuart*. "We differ entirely *with* Lord Brougham."—*N. Am. Rev.* "Judge Petigru's purity of character compelled respect even from those *with* whom he radically differed."—*N. Y. Observer*, March 26, 1863. Still, it must be confessed, that this distinction is not always observed. Even among our best writers are those who use *from* after *differ* in both these connections indiscriminately.

The verb *incorporate*, in the sense of uniting or combining with something, takes *with*; as,

> "He never suffers wrong so long to grow,
> And to incorporate *with* right so far
> As it might come to seem the same."—*Daniel, Civil Wars.*

> "Thy soul,
> Imprisoned now indeed,
> In real darkness of the body dwells,
> Shut up from outward light
> To incorporate *with* gloomy night."—*Milton.*

But in the sense of taking into the body of a thing, it is properly followed by *into*. Examples: "These knights or gentlemen were at last incorporated *into* the body of the common-weal."—*Holland, Pliny*. "The Romans did not subdue a country to put the inhabitants to fire and sword, but to incorporate them *into* their own community."—*Addison, Freeholder*. "A small settlement of these [Latinized words] had long since found their home in the bosom of the Anglo-Saxon itself, and had been entirely incorporated *into* it."—*Trench, Eng. Past and Present*. In this latter use of the word it is not uncommon to find it followed by *in* instead of *into*. Example: "These papers I have not incorporated *in* the present volume."—*Swinton, Rambles among Words*. This, however, is an error, as truly so as to say "These papers I have not *brought in*—or, *introduced in*—the present volume."

Necessity is a word which may and should be followed sometimes by *of*, and sometimes by *for*. Thus, we may say,

with equal propriety, with Junius, "They have reduced you to the necessity *of* choosing out of a variety of difficulties;" or, with Crabb, "There would be no necessity *for* punishment, if there were no evil-doers." To lay down anything like a general rule to guide one in these cases, is more than we claim to be able to do. We note, however, that when the word is preceded by *a*, *any*, or *no*, it is usually followed by *for;* but, when preceded by *the*, it is perhaps more commonly followed by *of*. Yet we should not hesitate to say, "The necessity *for* arguing in defense of that measure no longer exists." But to suppose that *necessity* should never be followed by *of*, is an error. Into this error Mr. Moon seems to have fallen when he takes exception (See "Bad English") to Lindley Murray's saying "This being the case, we may see the necessity *of* some attention, in order to understand their nature and use:" His comment on this is simply "Say, 'the necessity *for* some attention.'" But he gives no reason for such a direction, and we see none. On the contrary, we should prefer to say with Murray here, "the necessity *of* some attention." So too, we should say, "We are frequently under the necessity *of* going without that of which we stand most in need."—*Crabb.* In conformity to this use, Macaulay says "His profession imposed on all who were not saints the necessity *of* being hypocrites."—*Miscel.* "These politicians were under the necessity *of* taking a part in theological controversies."—*Do.*

We conclude this very imperfect discussion of the misuse of prepositions by calling attention to what we regard a noteworthy misapplication of the word *between*, or *betwixt*, which should be guarded against. In the use of this preposition reference is properly had to two objects or sets of objects, and no more; as, "The period between *Chaucer* and *Surrey;*" "Few aged persons are conscious of any difference between the *spoken language* of their early youth and *that* of their old age."—*Trench, Eng. P. and P.* Sometimes the objects named or referred to are embraced in a single word; as, "From betwixt two aged *oaks;*" "The shot passed between *them.*" The misuse of this word in applying it, in place of *among*, with reference to more than two objects, as in the sentence, "The Anglo-Saxons soon quarreled be-

tween themselves for precedence," is noted by grammatical writers generally. But the misapplication we refer to is the failure to supply a suitable grammatical object, denoting even two things or sets of things. One of the things or sets is named, or represented by some suitable word, while the other is not. Good writers sometimes err in this way through inadvertence. Examples: "There is a strong resemblance between the general diction of this poet and of Gower."—*G. P. Marsh, Eng. Lang.* "Between the pronunciation of the *a* in *glass* and of the *a* in father there is a difference in quantity."—*R. G. White, in Galaxy for Nov.*, 1873. "There is a great difference between the language under Elizabeth and that under Charles I., between that under Charles I. and Charles II., between that under Charles II. and Queen Anne."—*Archdeacon Hare.* "What is the difference between the meaning of the word *boy* and *boys?*"—*Pinco, Prim. Gram.* In each of these instances the word *that* needs to be supplied to complete the true expression of the thought. Take the first of them, for example. Marsh does not mean the general diction of Chaucer and of Gower as one thing. And yet his words say this. His reference, however, is to the diction of each—to two things. Consequently, he should have said, "between the general diction of this poet and that of Gower." The next sentence has a similar blunder. If there is any meaning in words, the expression "the pronunciation of the *a* in *glass* and of the *a* in *father*" means but one pronunciation, it being implied that the sound of *a* in both cases is the same. In the next example, the words "between that under Charles I. and Charles II." really, literally mean "between *Charles II.* and the *language* under Charles I." Hence the necessity of inserting the expression *that under* before the words "Charles II." and "Queen Anne." So in the remaining sentence: "What is the difference between the meaning of the word *boy* and [that of the word] *boys?*" or, which is better, "What is the difference in meaning between the words *boy* and *boys?*" In the following sentence of Trench's the word improperly omitted is *those:* "The Saxons intruded between the Britons of Cornwall and of Wales."—*Eng. P. and P.* As this reads, the expression "the Britons of Cornwall

and of Wales" denotes but one people. But this is not Trench's meaning. He meant two peoples, and should therefore have said, "between the Britons of Cornwall and those of Wales." In the following sentence from the same author the error arises from an improper omission of the article *the*: "Thus a gulf between the written and spoken word will exist."—*Eng. P. and P.* The expression "the written and spoken word" properly means but one word. But what the writer meant was "between the written and the spoken word;" *i. e.*, two words, so called, one the spoken form and the other the written.

S. W. W.

GEOGRAPHICAL NOTES.

UNITED STATES.—Prof. Hayden has discovered that the body of water heretofore known as Madison Lake, because it was the supposed source of the Madison Fork of the Missouri, really discharges into the Pacific, and belongs to that system of drainage. He has, therefore, with questionable propriety, changed the name to Lake Shoshone, and called Lake Lewis a smaller pond into which it empties. The divide between the neighboring Yellowstone Lake and Lake Lewis was found to be about 50 feet above the former and 200 feet above the latter; and this low ridge in the Continental water-divide probably gave rise to the story of a Two-Ocean River, which appears on most of our printed maps. The question whether there can be a lake with two natural and permanent out-falls has lately been discussed in *Nature* (Aug. 14 and Sept. 11). Mr. W. Stanley Jevons, having carefully examined a reputed lake of this character, the Lesje Værks Vaud, at the summit of the Romsdal in Norway, found an actual double overflow, but the eastern one artificially regulated to furnish water-power to an old blast-furnace just below. Its channel was rectangular, paved at the bottom and sides with large boulders, and sustained by timbers. "Although these timbers are now nearly rotted

away, it is evident that the channel had at some time or other been carefully formed." Mr. Jevons continues:

"I write the above without having previously entered into the subject, and without being able to refer to any information about it. On *à priori* grounds it seems very unlikely that there should exist any lake with two distinct outflows. For in order that such a state of things should exist permanently, either there must be no erosion of the channels whatever, or the erosion must proceed with exact equality, otherwise one stream will augment at the expense of the other, and its eroding power being thus increased, it will more and more tend to sap the supplies of the other stream. The condition of things would, in fact, be that of unstable equilibrium, which could not long continue to exist."

This view, both in particular and in general, is sustained by Mr. George Greenwood, who says of the eastern exit above referred to:

"The water-parting there, between Romsdal and the Dovre Feld, is an ancient ridge of drift. A cut has been made by man through this ridge. The stream through this cut now works a saw mill, but was formerly connected with the old iron works. The one outlet from the lake enters the mill pool, from which there are two outlets, one to serve the mill the other for the waste water. All these three outlets are kept each at its required level *artificially*, that is, with piles, logs, boulders, and rubble, so that the quantity of water which is let out of the lake is regulated by 'the miller and his men.' The case is precisely equivalent to the Black Loch, in Dumfriesshire, whose *natural* (!) outlet is an iron sluice in a stone dam opening to a mill lead cut through the water-parting to Lord Bute's mill."

Mr. Robert B. Hayward, however, appears to furnish a conclusive instance in Wales:

"On the high and very broken ground between the old mountain road from Dolgelly to Towyn (which runs at the foot of Cader Idris) and the south shore of the estuary of the Mawddach is a watershed which separates streams flowing directly into the estuary by Capel Arthog from others which, after joining the stream that descends from Llyn y Gader in the hollow immediately under the summit of Cader Idris, find their way into the estuary some three miles higher up. On this watershed lies a lake about half-a-mile long, named Llyn Creigenen, which occupies a rock basin with two lips at exactly the same level, one at its western, the other at its eastern extremity. By the western lip a small stream issues which descends rapidly and at one part of its course forms one of the branches of the Falls of Arthog, well known to visitors at Barmouth. By the eastern lip also, a

stream, diminutive, it is true (at any rate in the summer months), but still quite distinct, issues and descends into a boggy tract, along which it wanders for some two miles, until it joins the stream before mentioned from Llyn y Gader. These facts are distinctly recorded on the Ordnance map, and I have frequently verified them myself and pointed them out to others. I think there can be no doubt but that in this instance both of the outlets are *natural*, and that a stream must issue from one if a stream issues from the other, at any rate at the ordinary level of the water in the lake. It is, perhaps, impossible to say that both outlets are *permanent* in that *secular* sense which Prof. Jevons seems to attribute to the word, as circumstances are easily conceivable under which the flow through the smaller easterly outlet might cease; but at any rate for many years, supposing the average supply of water to the lake to remain the same, and no artificial barrier to be erected, the two streams will continue to issue from the lake at all seasons."

——Another change must be made in our maps. The loftiest peak in the Sierra Nevada, and, as thus far measured, in the United States, is Mt. Whitney, between Owen Lake and Tulare Lake in Southern California. The peak to which the name and the honor have heretofore been ascribed, turns out to be some six miles to the south-east of the true Mt. Whitney. How the error came about is fully described by Mr. James D. Hague in the *Overland Monthly* for November. Suffice it to say that Mr. Clarence King made an unsuccessful attempt to scale the genuine peak in 1864, from the southern side. When, in 1871, he sought to renew the ascent from the eastern side, he accepted the peak which had meantime been mistakenly located on the map of the Geological Survey. An interrupted view from the top prevented his suspecting the truth. Only last July was the error detected, and Mr. King has since made the ascent, and confirmed a previous estimate that Mt. Whitney is at least 15,000 feet high.

South America.—According to the Brazilian census of 1871, the municipality district of Rio Janeiro had 274,972 souls, 133,880 of whom were free and 92,153 enslaved. The foreign population numbered 84,283, of whom only 21,398 were females. Only 1,928 non-Catholics lived in the district. Of the 48,939 slaves only 505 were married. Of the whole population, 175,487 could neither read nor write, and of

41,514 children between 6 and 15 years of age, only 10,045 were at school. There were 200 priests, 66 of whom were foreigners, 14 Brazilian monks, and 50 foreign nuns. There were also about 30 Brazilian nuns, but these could not be brought to enumerate themselves, owing to the requirement of stating their age, which is against the rule of the Order. The Portuguese number 55,933; the French, 2,884; Italians, 1,738; Germans, 1,459; Spaniards, 1,459; English, 966; Chinese, 225; Americans, 211. The population of the city of Rio was about 240,000.

EUROPE.—The census of Rome for 1872 has, says the *Perseveranza*, very little that is comforting in its figures. Thus the births amounted only to 6,940, while the deaths reached 9,924—a tremendous difference on the wrong side. There were 919 illegitimate births, 518 foundlings exposed—a slight improvement over the preceding year. The civil marriages numbered 1,200 against 605 of the last year. The male population exceeds the female by 35,000, the cause of which is perhaps partly found in the fact that many shepherds and cultivators of the Agro Romano are now at work in the city, whose improvements require a large force. 417 deaths were caused by intermittent fever; 354 by typhoid; 737 by small-pox; 572 by diphtheria; 512 by apoplexy; tuberculose and like affections, 432; organic disease of the heart, 474.

AFRICA.—Lieut. Cameron's expedition to succor Livingstone reached Zanzibar Jan. 13, and five weeks later settled down to recruit at Bagamoyo, where much delay was experienced in procuring porters. The route once taken was substantially that of Stanley, but somewhat to the south. The dismal swamp which that traveler encountered was in a more favorable condition for the British party, who crossed it without difficulty. Their progress had not been unattended with collision with the natives, but the legitimate Arab traders proved "good, clever, civil, obliging and very gentlemanly." The Snider rifles with which the expedition is furnished have caused a wholesome dread among the tribes and villages through which it passes, and on more than one occasion the very sight of them has been

sufficient to prevent the down caravans from plundering the up ones under Cameron's protection. This leader "gives almost Utopian accounts of the bucolic and village life of the negroes in this quarter of Africa, and asserts distinctly that their condition is superior to that of the ordinary agricultural laborer in England"—which is quite credible. The Queen has granted Dr. Livingstone a pension of £300 a year.

——Dr. Schweinfurth visited the Monbuttu country in 1868, and remained there five weeks under the special protection of the king, Munsa. So far as the country itself was concerned, a longer stay would have been delightful; but a peculiar habit of the people somewhat detracts from the traveler's enjoyment. We append (from *Nature*) an abstract of a recent paper on this subject by Dr. Schweinfurth:

"It is a densely populated district lying between 3 and 4 N. lat., and 28 and 29 E. long., and bounded on the north by the Kibali, a copious stream which unites with the Gadda, and under the name of Uelle receives in its passage through the Miam-Miam country a number of other streams, that serve as feeders to Lake Tsad. The country of the Monbuttus, lying at an elevation of from 2,500 to 3,000 feet above the level of the sea, consists of an ever-varying alternation of gently swelling hills and well-watered valleys, alike rich in palms and bananas, and every other form of luxuriant tropical vegetation. In this earthly paradise where Nature spares man the burden of labor, the people, although living under an organized system of government, and showing extraordinary skill in working metals and in other arts, are habitual cannibals. This is not from want of animal food, as elephants, buffaloes, antelopes and wild swine abound, but whatever the cause may be, the fact is undisputed that the cannibalism of the otherwise gentle Monbuttus exceeds that of any other known African nation, and is systematically gratified at the expense of the more degraded blacks living beyond their frontiers, whom they seize and carry away, driving their captives before them like a herd of sheep, and slaughtering them as they need them. The young children and the fattest individuals are kept for the royal kitchen, where the flesh is dried and prepared with capsicums and many savory fruits for the king, Munsa, whose numerous wives have to take it in turn to cook for him. The power of the king is supreme, and it would appear that the land of the Monbuttus may rank as one of the most important monarchical states of Central Africa. In race the people seem to approximate to the Fulbe, and in language to the north equatorial African group. They recognize one supreme being,

appear to have no outward symbols of worship, and practise circumcision."

ASIA.—Baron von Maltzan states that in spite of amalgamation with central Arabian elements, the population of South Arabia still admits of division into two distinct peoples, the Sabäer and the Himyarites, the former of whom have light yellow skins, while the latter, whose name he derives from *Hamr*, red, are so dark-skinned as to be generally classed amongst the black races. He observed a curious physical character in the family of the Himyarite rulers of the Fodli, or Ozmani-State, many of whom, both males and females, had six fingers and six toes on both hands and feet. This peculiarity is looked upon by the people at large as a special mark of blue blood, and prized accordingly by the possessors. It would seem that the practice of forming consanguineous marriages, which prevails in the Fodli, as in other ruling houses, may of itself explain, as a mere case of hereditary recurrence, the appearance of this physiological character in numerous and remote members of the family. The portion of Arabia selected by Von Maltzan for his explorations was the extreme southern end of the peninsula, almost a *tabula rasa* on our maps.

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——It is announced that Mr. James Gordon Bennett proposes fitting out an Arctic expedition for the discovery of the North Pole.—*Tribune*, Oct. 24.

——According to the *Melbourne Argus*, H. M. S. *Basilisk*, Captain Moresby, while cruising in Torres Straits and neighborhood for the suppression of the Polynesian labor traffic, has added a valuable fact to the knowledge we possessed of the geography of New Guinea by the discovery of a new port and harbor in lat. 9° 30′ S., lon. 147° 10′ E., about 38 miles east of Redscar Bay, on the south-eastern coast. The

discovery was made in February, when Capt. Moresby, while searching for a river supposed to flow into the sea east of Redscar Bay, entered an inlet which proved to be the entrance to a magnificent harbor, with an outer and inner anchorage, to which the names of Port Moresby and Fairfax Harbor have been given. The natives are much lighter complexioned than those of the opposite coast, and are evidently of a much more friendly disposition.—*Nature*, Aug. 14.

Cartography.—Petermann's *Mittheilungen* for Aug. 21 gives a map of Khiva from Russian sources. High schools and academies will be interested in knowing that the following maps may be procured of the Librairie Militaire de Dumaine, Paris. They are part of the publications of the Commission for the Topography of Gaul established by the late Emperor Napoleon in 1858: (1) An orohydrographical map of Gaul, in four sheets; (2) the same, with the addition of names and boundaries, to represent Gaul under the pro-consulate of Julius Cæsar. The Commission are preparing a map of Gaul showing the geographical distribution of the Gaulish tribes.

Photography.—Invasion, insurrection, mutiny, anarchy, shall not deter us from entering Spain, with the camera; shall rather whet our appetite to see something of this unstable and yet old and conservative land. No better views could we desire than those of Mr. Frank M. Good.* Only a few can here be passed under review; what remains is of equal quality. As a guide in our Spanish tour we may as well employ a fellow-countryman, the Hon. S. S. Cox, whose "Search for Winter Sunbeams in the Riviera, Corsica, Algiers, and Spain" (New York: Appletons, 1870) is agreeable reading, and will be freely used in our descriptions.

If we enter Spain with the Atlantic breezes we shall naturally first visit Seville, perhaps crossing the substantial iron bridge shown in No. 318, the *Guadalquivir* flowing beneath—"not a poetical river to look at," says Mr. Cox, and "not only turbid but dull in its flow." Once in the city, we pause before the *Entrance to the Alcazár* (No. 320), the Moorish palace whose architecture, in its ornamental chisellings, so forcibly recalls the architecture of India. Of the interior details we select the lovely *Moorish Arches* in No. 334, beside which Gothic and Grecian stone-work appears bald and timid—though far be it from us to defend this comparison! What is the nature of the *Panorama from the Alcazár?* Within the walls it "is that of an Oriental city. The house-roofs are tiled with the grey tile, a little mossed, while the roofs and domes of the churches are, some of them, blue-tiled. The city is compact and interspersed with greenery." This is a quite exact description of No. 314. The *Bull-ring* we shall see only as we stand in it to get a view of the Cathedral (No. 317), and let our eyes linger a moment on the segment of the amphitheatre

* In the stock of Messrs. E. & H. T. Anthony, 591 Broadway.

(true barbarous Roman inheritance) before rising to the surprising edifice in the distance. Here the mass of the Cathedral with its tower (Giralda) recalls the form of the camel. A near view of it, exactly at right angles to the former, is given in No. 315, with the effect of huddling together the domes and turrets and flying buttresses, but affording a good study of the tower, "rising, compartment up and out of compartment, like a telescope drawn out," and crowned with the usual dome, as well as with the extraordinary dame-weathercock whose name the tower bears. One readily believes, from what can here be seen of the exterior, in the Cathedral's "seventeen splendid entrances," "twenty-three chapels," and "ninety-three painted windows." The House of Pilate *(Casa de Pilatos)* is pictured in No. 337 from the inner court, so characteristic of Moorish architecture. An arched colonnade in two stories surrounds the marble area, in the midst of which is a fountain capped with a classic bust. In one corner is a statue of Minerva; in the opposite a figure grasping a globe; and over all rises a grand octagonal tower. A fine crypt, the *Sultana's Bathing-place*, is the subject of No. 335, which only conjecturally we assign to Seville. Passing up the Guadalquivir to Cordoba, we pause on the banks of the stream to view the *Cathedral* (No. 285), a less grand, but seemingly a more consistent design than that of Seville. As before, we are looking at a city set in a plain; but here we catch a glimpse of the sierra in the distance. A *Bridge* with one Roman and two Moorish arches; a *Gateway* that recalls one we have seen at Cartagena in New Grenada—these and the river make a fine and almost tender composition (No. 286). Part of the wall and the *Caliph's Tower* are seen from the road in No. 307; a tree, decaying like the tower, seems to compete with it in endurance. A *Street View*, No 303, has much in common with one that we might name in Matanzas. The vista leads up to a palm-tree in some far-off garden. In the side view of the *Market Place*, No. 300, coarse earthen-ware, rope, and rope baskets seem the only commodities, but the market-women are a pleasant study. We must go N. E. to strike the coast at Valencia, where we stop only to make the acquaintance of the *Porta del Palan*, the doorway of the Cathedral, a curious piece of fourteenth century work, consisting of six concentric arches resting on columns (No. 268); and of the *Tower of Santa Catalina* (No. 269 A), seen between rows of balconied houses, "whose windows are shaded with the matting curtains so peculiar to this part of Spain." Still further north we come to the port of Tarragona, the *Tarraco* of the Romans, the *Tarchon* of the Phœnicians, whose lofty site is well depicted in the *General View*, No. 271, in which the surf breaks upon huge masses of rock at our feet. On the shore was built the old Roman ampitheatre, which has been used as a quarry, now to make a mole for the harbor, now for various purposes of building, and the seats of which, so far as it is preserved, are seen in the *View from the Ramparts*, No. 272, looking out upon the Mediterranean. Outside the walls we meet

with another antiquity, the so-called *Tomb of the Scipios*, No. 282, though there is no foundation for the name. It is a striking massive square tower, perhaps thirty feet high, the top wanting, and the sculptured figures on the side almost destroyed. Once more northward bound, we arrive at *Barcelona*, and look down upon it from Monjuich, a height of nearly six hundred feet (No. 254). It is a city of noble extent and appearance, with many commanding towers, and with a charming background of sierras. The *Ancient Gate* of the city, No. 256, two round towers of stone and brick, lets us into a curious narrow street, whose pavements still glisten from the late rain. Turning now to ascend the Ebro, we reach Saragossa, whose *Market-Place* (No. 251) exhibits a motley extent of separate stalls on the sidewalk and in the street, overlooked by tall balconied dwelling-houses interesting to behold. The patient donkey of the *Water-carrier* (No. 253), laden with four jars, the water-carrier himself sitting beside the spouting fountain, his little girl, the rough pavement, the great doorway – it is a character-picture worth owning.

We have already quit Spain when we find ourselves at *Biarritz*, and take our first view of it from the Lighthouse (No. 241), stared at by horned cattle perilously near the edge of cliffs which rise sheer from the waters of the Bay of Biscay. The town looks more solid than we commonly imagine a watering-place to be; and solid work was done there, we fancy, when Bismarck took the measure of Napoleon III. in personal interviews, and felt that he had in him an adversary not to be feared. The *Virgin Rock* at Biarritz (No. 244) is a short tunnel utilized by a railroad below and by piety above, being surmounted by a colossal statue of the Virgin. At *Bayonne*, as seen from the Citadel, we find hôtels and bridges reminding us of Paris; a gate in Spanish fashion; a battery and esplanade; warehouses, shipping—an interesting port altogether (No. 240).

Obituary.—Vice-Admiral Sir Robert McClure, who died in London in October, was born in Wexford, Ireland, Jan. 28, 1807. He had already made two Arctic voyages when, in 1850, he left Plymouth in command of the *Investigator*, under orders to pass through Behring's Straits, and thence, if practicable, proceed to Melville Island—which had not then been accomplished by any vessel. Capt. McClure spent nearly four years this time in the Arctic regions, during which he made search for traces of Sir John Franklin, still keeping in view his purpose of reaching the Atlantic from the Pacific Ocean, by sailing around the seas which form the northern boundary of this continent. After meeting with great perils, and displaying remarkable fortitude, he succeeded in accomplishing his purpose, and arrived in England in September, 1854. He was treated with marked distinction on his return, received the reward of $25,000 offered for his discovery, and subsequently was knighted and made Vice-Admiral.

MINERAL SUBSTANCES AS AIDS TO EDUCATION.

I.

WHY A SELECTED SERIES OF MINERAL SUBSTANCES SHOULD BE USED FOR INSTRUCTION IN OUR COMMON SCHOOLS.

IT is a very prevalent mistake to suppose that the introduction into our common schools of instruction upon natural objects implies the teaching of the naturalologies. Educators, qualified to form an opinion, know however that, so far from its being a possibility to teach Botany and Zoology, Mineralogy and Geology in any other than a strictly scientific institution, it is next to impossible to even make a pretence of teaching any one of them in an effective manner, in an ordinary school. To educate mineralogists or botanists requires an out of door and out of school training and an expenditure of time, that is utterly incompatible with elementary school work. A taste for science however may be inspired, and the path may be indicated to the pupil by following which he may in his leisure hours, or later in life, become proficient in one or more of these sciences. Not that it is our hope nor our intention, in all nor even in many cases, to produce such a result; we may not wish our children to become botanists or entomologists, and we most assuredly do not desire that they should have imparted to them a superficial smattering of such sciences; but we do think, that it is time that our children should be allowed some insight into the nature and scope of the natural sciences; that they should have opportunity afforded them of learning, by their own experience, how a science is pursued; of realizing upon what sure bases scientific knowledge rests, and of recognizing by experiment the exactitude and practical value of scientific method. In other words, we ask that they may have the advantage of some scientific training. The practical value of such training is unlimited; in inuring to greater, it subserves lesser ends; the same experience in methodical manipulation that is essential to the great chemist will certainly tend to make a reliable cook, and the same kind of experience in experiment, that carried farther would make a skillful mineralogist, will be of the greatest

value to the mechanic or the farmer; whilst the habit of careful inductive reasoning that marks the philosophic geologist, will ensure sound judgments upon every day contingencies. Scientific training in fact is the best assurance against habits of careless observation and against the practice of drawing hasty and hap-hazard conclusions.

If it be desirable to give this training at all, the earlier it is commenced the better, and it can be carried out only by the use of natural objects. *Objects*, because it cannot be imparted by words alone; its very spirit requires that the term shall follow the perception of an idea and not that the latter shall be given as an explanation of a term. Let the child ask, "What do you call this that I see or feel?" not "What is the meaning of this word that you use?" The scientific discoverer makes and examines his discovery before he names it; he does not invent a word and then seek for the object that it shall represent. *Natural* objects, in preference to artificial ones, should be chosen for a reason to be given presently. Of natural objects mineral substances stand lowest both in the simplicity of their composition and in their want of vitality; and the ideas to be evolved from them are consequently less complex than those derivable from an examination of plants and animals. They are also admirably adapted to convey to the minds of children vivid conceptions of the physical, and even of some of the simpler chemical, properties of matter;—thus hardness, color, lustre, diaphaneity and the rest, with the effects produced by heat and acids, may be easily and deeply impressed on the mind by these substances used as objects in object lessons. It may be said that minerals will not prove as interesting subjects as plants and animals; this depends on the teacher alone. Children, finding that, instead of having to pore over dull text-books at home, they have to bring to school, as part of their lesson, specimens from the road-side or from the parlor mantel-shelf, will soon remind the teacher, if bright and qualified, of the boy who, having to clear the field of stones, accomplished the task by converting it into a pastime for both himself and others.

But why select stones and rocks, as objects to illustrate the physical properties of matter, in preference to chairs

and tables, blackboards and blackboard brushes, and other such favorite subjects for object teaching? Because whereas a chair is an isolated subject, the instruction upon it beginning and ending in itself, such is not the case with a mineral, which is but one of a natural series, and, as your pupils will soon realize, a stepping-stone to more and more of those novel ideas that their young minds are ever eager to grasp. Add a second mineral to the first, let the pupils compare the two, noting their resemblances and their differences,—it is a first step in Mineralogy; make them discern these two minerals associated together in a rock,—it is a first lesson in Geology. Your pupils will not recognize, perhaps for some time to come, the fact that they are entering upon these "sciences;" but they will realize that they are turning into a new path leading them into an undreamt of land. You may thus perceive that a *selected* series of mineral substances, besides supplying subjects for object-lessons, subserves naturally other and higher ends; and it is this consideration that will induce you to prefer such natural substances rather than artificial ones for the purpose of object instruction. To obtain this ulterior advantage, however, you must select your subjects with judgment and not take them hap-hazard.

The teacher will not intend to teach the science of mineralogy, and yet as you may see above, if he use his advantages, he cannot help putting his pupils in a fair way to learn it by setting before them how it is to be studied; nay, he will absolutely teach them something of it, for he will show them how to recognize and distinguish from each other the few minerals that he has time to exhibit to them. The characters of hardness, cleavage, color, lustre, specific gravity, solubility and fusibility which he draws out from his pupils are the very ones from which the mineralogist infers the nature, the chemical composition and the history, of the mineral before him. It is true that he applies crystallographic knowledge, where possible, as a crucial test, which we cannot attempt to use in our most elementary work; but we may console ourselves that it is comparatively seldom that this test is applicable, as in ninety-nine specimens out of a hundred that will occur to our pupils, the

crystalline form will not be shown and we shall consequently have to rely upon other characters for the required determination.

But is it desirable that our pupils should have any knowledge at all of minerals? Is there any value practical or educational attaching to the science of mineralogy? or at any rate is the knowledge to be thus gained equivalent in value to other information that might be obtained in the same time? In the first place, what is the practical value of this information? I answer at once that we, as educators, have nothing whatever to do with this question. I might suggest to you and you will, if you teach rightly, suggest to your pupils a large amount of practical information regarding mineral substances. It will undoubtedly add to the interest of your instruction to explain to your classes that quartz is the material of the sand used in glass-making; that feldspar is the source of the clay used in pottery; to impress upon them the importance, the geographical distribution and the relative value of the ores of iron, or of the varieties of coal, and so forth. But all this will be purely incidental; the chief end that we have in view is the educational value of our teaching; our object is to develop the intellectual faculties of our pupils. It is not in our sphere to give technical instruction; if we were required to teach the practical applications of Geology, we should demand that first we must be allowed time to teach the pure science itself; or, if requested to give instruction in Hygiene, we should properly suggest that it must be preceded by a full course on Physiology. I draw attention to this, because of all the fallacies that impede the introduction of really scientific instruction into schools, this "practical value" question is perhaps the worst. The sooner the public appreciates that the practical man is the puppet that appears before it, draws the audience and receives the laughter and applause (and, what a puppet however does not, the profits), but that it is the scientific man in his unrecognized laboratory that pulls the strings that work this puppet; and the sooner people reflect upon the palpable truism, that a knowledge of the pure science must necessarily precede its intelligent application, the better will it be for the cause of education. We

then in our sphere, as we cannot even venture upon teaching more than the elements of the pure sciences, are altogether out of the field of their practical application. We can, however, lay the foundation upon which sound scientific knowledge may hereafter be built up, if needed, in the scientific and technological institute; and the more soundly we thus prepare our pupils, the more valuable our services to the community. It may be said that not one child in a thousand is destined to enter a scientific school or to follow strictly scientific pursuits. Strictly speaking this is so, but so intimately is science intermingled with our every day life, that every young person who wishes to succeed should devote some of his leisure time to the acquirement of scientific knowledge, and to the cultivation of habits of scientific reading and thought. The agriculturist, the gardener, the mechanic or the lawyer who has such knowledge has an intellectual implement which will give him a thousand and one extra chances in the social struggle for existence, and which will entitle him to the social status that is the right of the better educated. The more extensive his knowledge, if bridled by a habit of experiment and reasoning, careful experiment to curb, and cautious reasoning to guide, the more certain his success, and the greater his influence over his less trained and less accomplished fellows.

But what has this to do with the educational value of minerals and of mineralogy? Any insight into mineralogy inevitably leads us into the domain of Geology; and I do not hesitate to say, that of all the natural sciences, Geology gives the deepest intellectual training, broadens the mind and elevates its conceptions to the greatest degree, and tends more than any other to make man realize the vastness of Creation and his own glorious place in the grand scheme. There is not a science that it does not call to its aid, and every field of material enquiry is taxed for its elaboration. Thought trained by the strictest mathematical habit is in it applied to carefully sifted observations made in every department of Nature. Physics and chemistry, astronomy and meteorology, botany and zoology and their subordinate sciences, have to be drawn upon if we would understand the history of our earth, a history which alone is the key to

physical geography, as that in turn reveals to us the deepest secrets of ethnology and political geography. It may be thought that I make an exaggerated claim for geology, and yet a moment's reflection will satisfy you that the history of this earth is the history not merely of a dull clod of inert matter, but that it is the history of all that peoples, or ever has peopled this orb. A knowledge of every law of Nature would alone allow us to read this wonderful story in its fullness, and we can only read it imperfectly as far as we know those laws; and yet what a vast record is revealed to us, a record that expands our ideas of time as astronomy does of space, a record that, revealing the magnitude of Creation, inevitably overwhelms us with thoughts of the Creator. Can we say that any education deserves the name which ignores the existence of such an ennobling and comprehensive science as this? And yet throughout this country there are thousands of schools in which it is scarcely called by its name, and in which its truths and its teachings are utterly untaught, because to the very teachers unknown. But how impossible to teach such a science as this, a pyramid as it were of all the other sciences! Granted at once! it is out of the question to give in our schools a detailed insight into geology, but it happily is a science, of which if certain simple elements are taught, the after pursuit may be made to a considerable extent by means of books and collections in museums. It is, therefore, a science towards which it is desirable to attract the young, because it is one which they can easily pursue even in cities, which is inexhaustible in its interest, which possesses an extensive and, to the initiated, an entertaining literature, and which is, therefore, peculiarly adapted to encourage desirable habits of reading and reflection, an end which should be a prominent one in all school education.

It is then that our children may be taught that the earth and all that is on it has a great and eventful history, that they may be given the opportunity of understanding this history and of profiting their minds by a study of it, that I urge that instruction on the subject of minerals be introduced into every school throughout the land. Fossils have have been aptly termed the "medals of Creation;" minerals

are the alphabet of the language, in which the history of this earth is recorded. In attempting to understand this history, you come, we will suppose, to the term "granitic rocks"—will not this be an empty sound to you, unless you know by sight and touch quartz, feldspar, mica and hornblende? or are not the "sedimentary rocks" indefinite somethings, unless you know the history of sand and clay?

I trust that I have given a satisfactory answer to the question, "Why Minerals should be used as Aids to Education." In my next I will try to show "How they may be used for that purpose."

THE NEW NORMAL COLLEGE.

THE new Normal College, situated at sixty-ninth street and Lexington Avenue, in this city, was formally dedicated on Wednesday morning, Oct. 29th. The building, which is of brick, is 200 by 400 feet in size, and is capable of accomodating from 1,500 to 1,600 pupils. Including the ground upon which it stands, and the furniture, apparatus, etc., it has cost fully $1,000,000. The long-felt need for such a college led to its establishment in temporary quarters a few years ago, where its success was so great that the Board of Education resolved to give it a "local habitation," inasmuch as it had already gained a "name." Work was accordingly commenced some three years ago, and the building was sufficiently forward to be occupied in September. At the dedication the gallery of the chapel was filled with friends of the institution, and, with the first notes of a stirring march, the pupils began to file in and take their places in the body of the room.

The Rev. Dr. Burchard opened the exercises by reading selections from the Scriptures, after which there was music by the students. Mr. Neilson, President of the Board of Education, made the opening address. He spoke of woman's influence in the school and at home, and urged the importance of a proper education for her. A proper

education does not consist in cramming her with a variety of studies, or giving her a smattering of many sciences and languages. All these may be thoroughly taught, and she may still be of little benefit to society. The great necessity is the inculcation of the highest tone of moral sentiment. In addition to this the judgment should be carefully cultivated, and the pupils taught to reason, so that when they become teachers, they can give the grounds for the views they entertain. Pursuing such a course of instruction, the college will be the heart of our school system, from which shall flow a purer and healthier current, elevating and strengthening the whole body. In closing, President Neilson spoke of the relation of the public to the private schools, and of the duty of the latter to strive to conciliate the prejudices of all reasonable persons. We must not, however, go so far as to make our schools godless. Our children must be instructed in morality that they may be kept from crime.

After the rendering of Mendelssohn's "Autumn Song" by the students, Mr. James W. Farr, Chairman of the Committee on Normal Schools, gave a short sketch of the college, and spoke of the necessity for its establishment. Of the 2,300 teachers employed in the city, over 2,100 are females. About 180 of these annually abandon their profession, and it is to supply this constant loss that the college was founded. It now has a noble building, and an efficient president and corps of instructors, and all that is needed to make it a complete success, is the hearty support of the Board of Education. A pleasant feature of the exercises was a series of recitations by the pupils, some of whom evinced unusual cultivation of voice and training in delivery. A scene from the "Merchant of Venice" was very well rendered by Miss Minnie Ferrero. Mayor Havemeyer followed with a brief address, saying that he had been present as Mayor at the dedication of the Free Academy nearly twenty-five years ago. The advantages which were then offered to boys were now extended to girls. This is as it should be. A republican government must depend for its stability upon the intelligence of its citizens. Education must fit them to perform their duties, and it alone can keep

down the dangerous classes. In speaking to the pupils, soon to become teachers, the Mayor counselled patience to discover and develop the good qualities of their scholars. It is not always the brightest child that makes the most successful man. How responsible, then, is the teacher's position, and how great the reward if its duties are properly understood, and faithfully performed. Miss E. Ida Conant, President of the Alumnæ of the Normal College, followed Mayor Havemeyer, noting the progress made in female education, and thanking the Board of Education for providing a place where girls can be suitably prepared for the profession of teaching.

After singing by the pupils, Mr. Henry Kiddle, Superintendent of Schools, spoke of the development of the public school system, from the two schools opened in 1842, to the present time. The growth has been gradual, and the present college is the natural sequence of the first two schools. Since then there has been a large expenditure of money, but it has been a good investment, and the taxpayers have not objected. Some have, indeed, questioned the propriety of educating teachers for their profession, and have argued that we might as well open public law or medical institutions. It is, however, a simple matter of necessity; if we do not educate teachers we cannot get good ones. After a short address by the Hon. W. E. Curtis, a former President of the Board, Mr. Thomas Hunter, President of the College, delivered the closing address. He traced the relation of Normal Schools to general education, and spoke of the characteristics of the school over which he presides. Unlike some others, it has a training school connected with it, so that graduates are not wholly inexperienced in teaching.

At the close of Mr. Hunter's remarks Mr. Neilson formally dedicated the building, saying: "I now, in behalf of the Board of Education, declare this building to be dedicated, and set apart forever, for the purpose of a Normal College, and may God prosper it always." The exercises were then closed by singing the Doxology.

GREAT PRETENTIONS IN HIGH PLACES.

THERE are many, uninitiated perhaps, who hold that the main object of a Convention is rhetorical display. With such, the "reports" tend only to confirm the theory that, in purpose and origin, Conventions are largely the offspring of personal ambitions. The conviction naturally follows that in the matter of organization, they are manipulated, almost without exception, in the interests of parties, who are both zealous as theorists, and imperious in prosecuting their designs of self-promotion. Hence the impression is becoming general that the modern Convention, whether political or otherwise, is not largely illustrative, as it should be, of a beneficient energy wisely directed to the accomplishment of great and useful objects. Not only does personal pretension with its nauseous vauntings usurp the place of fair and logical discussion, but even the more sober and dignified proceedings, considered apart from the personal railery and subterfuge which always blend with them, lack sadly in character. They are too often dull, lifeless, comparatively purposeless. Destitute of definite aim, they drift on without inspiration, and consequently are but rarely instrumental of good.

The late convention, over which the Rev. Birdsey Grant Northrop presided, while excellent in some of its features, cannot in many respects command words of praise in its behalf. It is true, a modicum of good may accrue from the free comparison of views on important subjects, which occupied so many of its hours. Above all and over all, however, like an unpleasant cloud which would not rift, were the deportment of the Chairman, and the persistent hobby-riding of a few favored chieftains. The recent "proceedings" re-affirm with more than necessary emphasis that the Hon. Birdsey Grant Northrop is ambitious both of fame and place. He is always admirable in leadership. As presiding genius, he took his department in hand and did for it after his most approved methods. What the ancient Turveydrop was as a model of deportment, so was the Honorable gentleman as a model of dignity in his capacity of presiding chief. Like a true model, too, he knows how to

honor name when place gives it character. But, then, as a palliation, it must be remembered that reputation, like poetry, has its special licenses, and Mr. Northrop recognizes those by instinct. So both as patron and model, Mr. Northrop gave intensest satisfaction to himself—"one of the soundest educators of America," and no little pleasure to his friends, the hobbyists.

As a historian, too, the chairman was delightfully pleasant. His opportunities certainly have been great. He has "done" the field educational in Massachusetts; he has "presided" in Connecticut; has dwelt in spirit among the orientals in Japan, and "modeled" for them; and, not to be outdone, he has mastered the system of New Jersey in all its details! The assurance with which he announced that "whatever is excellent in the school system of New Jersey is due to Dr. McCosh," was most admirable. As a specimen of historical fiction, nothing could have been more charming. The fact that the establishment of a State Board of Education in New Jersey in 1863 was the initial measure of reform, and that "whatever is excellent" in her system is due to the activity and influence of that Board, does not militate against the gentleman's position. He knows. When he comes to write the "History of Education in America" what startling revelations shall be made! "Honor to whom honor is due," as a maxim, must then go to the wall forever.

The Convention, as a whole, cannot be condemned. The many able young Professors who participated in the discussions, won honors by the genuine, sound sense of their remarks, as well as by the clear and well-sustained views contained in the papers which they presented. That these will prove a stimulus to investigation cannot be doubted. What is needed to the progress of our schools, is close and careful observation upon the part of educators. The ways and means of liberal culture are yet in process of discovery, and it is the province of instructors to add yearly to the general knowledge respecting this important subject. This great work must go forward despite "manipulators;" for it is not to them that we look for aid in the effort to occupy advanced ground.

JERSEYMAN.

CREAM OF THE EDUCATIONAL MONTHLIES.

THERE is some force in the arguments of a writer in the *Massachusetts Teacher* against studying Natural History from pictures. It is true that it introduces an element of faith, which scientific investigation should exclude, but children must take some things on faith, even in science, until their minds are sufficiently matured to carefully observe. The question is not if pictures are better than the objects they represent, but if they are better than nothing, for teachers, especially in cities, are unable to obtain living specimens. The Natural History Museums, which we hope some day to have, will result from the interest awakened in the subject by such pictures as Prang's. Some of the objections to cards might hold with living specimens, as, for example, that "the flight" of falcons "is not shown in the pictures, nor the living in pairs." The former would hardly be demonstrated unless the stock of falcons was unusually large, and as to living in pairs they would probably live in pairs or singly as they happened to be caged. In "Reminiscences of Boston Schools forty-five years ago" we are taken with the Medal Scholars to a corporation dinner, a "gander party," but are with them marshalled out after the first toast. It is better so, perhaps, for rumor says that the stories and songs of the City Fathers were not the most select, after the first few toasts had been drunk. "Object Teaching," "Two Latin Lessons," from a familiar pen, and a paper on "William Russell" are the other principal articles in the *Teacher*.

The first article in the *National Teacher* deprecates a strict adherence to system in teaching young children, arguing that the child prefers unsystematized facts. The facts of nature, and the laws of mind, indicate, the writer says, that system is unnatural and undesirable. It is true that there is a spontaneous activity in children which naturally leaps from one thing to another, but we cannot but think that this activity can be wisely directed and thus made to produce better results than if left to itself. The writer appears to have fallen into the error of thinking that systematic teaching is necessarily formal. The *Teacher* seems to be all at sea

concerning the discussion between Dr. McCosh and Prof. Atherton. Dr. McCosh said that Agricultural Colleges were a failure, and instanced Cornell University as giving a dividend of two farmers upon its endowment. Prof. Atherton pointed out that the colleges commonly called agricultural, were, by the terms of the law, to provide a liberal and practical education for the industrial classes in their several pursuits and professions in life, and that Cornell University was educating 207 students upon the Congressional endowment. The other articles in this journal discuss, "Preparation for Teaching," and "Natural Science in Common Schools."

A writer in the *Pennsylvania School Journal* discourses upon the importance of punctuation to a clear expression of ideas, and notices the proper marks to precede, and follow, quotations. The rule laid down is, that a long quotation should invariably be introduced by a colon; a single short sentence by a comma, if introduced informally; by a colon, if formally introduced. By a formal introduction is meant one consisting of, "these words," "as follows," "the following words." The proper quotation marks to be employed is a more complicated matter, and an extreme case is given which we cite as a curiosity. "It is written in the gospel, 'Jesus answered the Jews, "Is it not written in your law, 'I said, "ye are gods"'?"'" So far as we can see this is in accordance with the laws of quotation, however much it may offend against the canons of common sense. Strictly speaking, it would be incorrect to omit any of these marks, and yet we think it may be done in actual practice. So good an authority as the *Atlantic Monthly*, however, closes a book-notice with six quotation marks and an exclamation point. "A Necrology," "Mysteries of the Circle," "The City Superintendency," and a good "Editorial Department" complete this number of the *Journal*.

MILTON was asked by a friend whether he would instruct his daughters in the different languages: to which he replied, "No, sir; one tongue is sufficient for a woman."

THE CHOICE OF STUDIES IN SCHOOLS.

THE Illinois newspapers report an interesting case involving the authority of School-Boards over the studies of pupils, which was decided at Rockford, Ill., a few days ago. The plaintiff was Miss Post, and the defendant Mr. Rulinson, teacher in Durand township high-school, in Winnebago county. The plaintiff was in the junior class of the high-school, and among the prescribed studies for the class was book-keeping. The plaintiff's mother did not want her to study book-keeping, because she had already as many lessons as the state of her health would permit her to master. She therefore refused to pursue that study and to obtain the necessary books. The directors ordered her expulsion, and the teacher, Rulinson, put her out of the building, using some force in the proceeding. Subsequently her step-father applied for her readmission, but the School-Board would not consent to it except on condition that she agree to study book-keeping. The plaintiff appealed to the Circuit Court. The case was tried twice without a decision, but on the third trial the jury, under the instructions of the court, found for the plaintiff, and awarded her $130 damages for trespass on the part of the defendant.

The judge, in his instructions to the jury, held that school directors may adopt reasonable regulations for the conduct of public schools and prescribe a course of study; but parents and guardians have the right, honestly and in good faith, to select from the prescribed studies the practical ones they desire their children or wards to pursue; that the refusal of a pupil, under instructions from his or her parents or guardian, to pursue the entire list of prescribed studies does not warrant an expulsion. It was intimated that a pupil had no right to reject a study from mere caprice or perversity. Under these instructions, the jury found for the plaintiff as above stated.

The case is interesting, because it defines the authority of the State (in the form of a school board) and the rights of parents, over the recipients of public education. The tendency of things is toward an exaggeration of the School-

Board authorities to make it supreme in the matter of the child's instruction, and independent of the parent. But this decision, while admitting the Board's authority over the pupil, asserts the parental rights over the child, and declares that the parents may have a voice, subject to reasonable rules, in the selection of their children's studies; in other words, that the prior relation of parent and child is not entirely subjected to that of State and citizen.

EDUCATIONAL INTELLIGENCE.

CONNECTICUT.—The State Medical Society, recognizing the importance of a good education as the foundation of a successful study of medicine, has taken measures to raise the requirements for candidates for the degree of M.D. A Board of Censors has been appointed, whose business it will be to examine candidates for admission to the Medical School, and it is probable that by another year something more than a mere common school education and a certificate of "good moral character" will be required. This step is being taken by all the chief medical colleges in the country.

NEW HAVEN.—The total number of students in the Sheffield Scientific School is 243, of whom 38 are graduate students. This is an increase of 42 for the present year. It is the design of the Governing Board to make the time of study for the degree of Bachelor of Philosophy extend over a period of four years, instead of giving the degree as at present to undergraduate students after three years' study. During the year past the degree of Dynamical Engineering has been instituted, and the requirements for the degree of Civil Engineer have been enlarged so as to demand two years of post-graduate study.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.—There is a disgraceful state of affairs among the public schools; they are without fuel, and the teachers without pay. At a late meeting of the Board of Trustees of Public Schools, Mr. Stuart called

attention to the necessity of making some arrangements by which the teachers and other employees could be paid their salaries; for, as matters now stood, he knew of cases where employees had been driven from their homes and were suffering for the necessaries of life in consequence of this great neglect in not paying them, if not all, at least a part of their salaries. He considered it a great outrage—and he was right.

MICHIGAN.—The additional 50,000 acres of school lands to which it has been discovered that Michigan is entitled are now being selected, and will add $200,000 to the primary school fund of the State, the lands being held for sale at $4 per acre.

TENNESSEE.—NASHVILLE.—The corner-stone of Jubilee Hall of the Fisk University has just been laid. The colored singers of the University made enough money with their concerts to buy 25 acres of land, eight acres of which are in the square forming the site of the hall; 3,000 Congregational churches are also contributing to the building.

UTAH TERRITORY.—Number of schools 268, number of teachers 358. The school population reported is 28,737, of which 59.1 per cent. are enrolled, with an actual attendance of 44.6 per cent. Schools generally are sustained by tuition fees, which range from $2.50 to $8 per quarter. Taking advantage of the seventh section in the school code, which authorizes the assessment and collection of one per cent. to pay teachers, several school districts have essayed to establish free schools. The Territorial Superintendent visited one of these and thus relates his experience. "On entering the primary department, in the basement of the building, it was immediately apparent that ventilation was not neglected, for the school teacher complained that about one-third of the panes of glass were broken; and seeing many pupils without text books, on inquiry, the fact was elicited that fifty per cent. of those in attendance were destitute of books, nor were charts or other aids brought into requisition to supply this deficiency." This tax of one per cent. is not sufficient to erect buildings and support teachers, and the Superintendent recommends a tax of one and one-half per

cent. The establishment of a State Normal School is also strongly urged.

THE following are the conditions upon which aid is given from the Peabody fund to the Southern schools:

First: The school for which the aid is asked must be a public free school, under the control of the lawfully constituted local school authorities.

Second: It must have a bona fide enrollment of not less than 100 pupils, averaging 85 per day.

Third: It must have an assured fund for current expenses, amounting to at least twice as much as the aid received from the fund.

Fourth: It must be a graded school.

Fifth: A teacher must be furnished for every fifty pupils at most.

Sixth: Two copies of the blanks must be filled up and subscribed by the proper parties, and returned to the State Superintendent of Public Instruction at Nashville.

ENGLAND.—The College for Women at Cambridge, England, is now established, Girton College having been opened at Cambridge this week, and the tutorial staff, with their girl students, are now in residence, and have commenced the collegiate year. The movement, which has culminated in the opening of Girton College, originated some four years ago, when a temporary college was opened in a hired house, where instruction has been given in the following subjects: Divinity, classics, German, mathematics, chemistry, physiology, geology, logic, political economy, mental philosophy, part singing, etc. The course, like that of the University, occupies about three years, half of each year being spent in the college in three terms. The college expenses, which include board, lodging, and instruction, are £35 per term each. The first mistress of the college is Miss Emily Davies, a member of the London-School Board, from which she is retiring in order to take the office of mistress of this college.

IRELAND.—The latest reports of the Commissioners of National Education tabulates 1,005,270 pupils, of whom 804,-

222 are Roman Catholics, and 201,048 (or almost exactly one-fifth) Protestant. Of the Roman Catholic children, about one-half (403,327) were in schools taught exclusively by Roman Catholic teachers, and with no Protestant attendance; 362,313 in schools taught exclusively by Romanists, with a percentage (27,312) of Protestant children as co-attendants. There were a few Roman Catholic children (27,312) in schools taught exclusively by Protestants.

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS.

HOWEVER excellent in some respects the Latin Grammars now in general use are, there are some points in which they invariably fail. They are insufficiently adapted to systematic study, because the rules are too abstract; and, because they do not treat subjects in their proper places, students are obliged to memorize much, which, at the time, is unintelligible, and which they forget before they have an opportunity to apply it. Besides this the authors are generally dependent upon the works of their predecessors, Ruddiman, Zumpt, and others, and, being only the compilers of compilers, often correct them when right, and follow them when wrong. In every grammar, including those generally quoted as authorities, many grammatical difficulties are slurred over, or are erroneously presented. We know of none which attempts to give the different grammatical forms at the disposition of the Latin language, to express the relations of cause, time, and manner. We look in vain for a chapter upon the peculiar forms for the relations of quantity, intensity, weight, and price. Ruddiman has omitted the theory of Tenses entirely, and what his successors give, is either erroneous or deficient.

To remedy all these defects in a single life-time is impossible, but a scholar who knows the language like a vernacular, and who has thoroughly studied all ante-classical, and classical authors, can remove most, if not all the objections against our Latin Grammars. GUSTAVUS FISCHER, LL.D., has fulfilled these two conditions, and in his "Manual of Latin Gram-

mar and Composition," the second part of which is just published, he has given us a work which will meet the demands for a thorough and intelligent study of Latin. His system is so arranged that the student does not take up a subject until he comes to it in natural course. For this purpose the whole range of Latin grammar is divided into two parts, an introductory or elementary section, in which the student is thoroughly drilled in the general principles of the language, and a special part, containing all the difficult details, which could not be understood without a previous survey of the whole language, and without an acquaintance with the usual Latin forms by which thought is conveyed. In the whole work there is no anticipation or draft on future explanations; every subject may be fully mastered as it comes up. The author endeavors to elucidate, first, the grammatical idea as such, then follows an enumeration of those grammatical forms which the language has at its disposition to express that idea, and finally the spirit of these forms is disclosed, by giving the student the key for their logical comprehension, and by comparing them with the corresponding English forms. In the second part, the same method is applied to the details of the language. From the first the pupil is thoroughly drilled in Latin composition, the author justly thinking that no part of the language can be mastered, or even appreciated, without schooling the mind of the student into transferring his own English thought into Latin thought. Hence to each chapter is added a large number of exercises, which are so arranged that rules previously learned are constantly coming up for application. Many of the sentences of the second part contain idioms different in both languages, so that regular paraphrases are given, to adapt the English sentence to the Latin way of thinking.

The rich material at the author's disposition has in a great measure emancipated him from the traditional grammatical apparatus handed down from Ruddiman's time, and has often given new views of the subject, and enabled him to settle some points which have been slighted before. A glance at the chapters on Gerundials, the Periphrastic conjugations, the Adverbial objects, (time, manner, coincident action, cause, quantity, price and weight), and especi-

ally the Tenses, Moods, and dependent sentences, will show the number of new, and hitherto unobserved, facts which have been brought to light. The possession of this material could not remain without influence upon the general grammatical principles, which either have been more firmly established, or presented in a new light. In closing our notice of this book we must remark, that it is not an easy method by which pupils can "learn Latin in twenty lessons;" hard work is the condition of success in its study. To those willing to work it offers itself as a reliable guide to the study of Latin.

M. CAMILLE FLAMMARION'S book, "The Atmosphere," which has been translated by James Glaisher, F. R. S., will be found interesting to the general reader, for although it treats its subjects scientifically, it avoids scientific nomenclature. Those familiar with the original will notice some omissions, although we think they improve, rather than injure, the work. The Respiration and Alimenation of Plants, for example, is so remotely connected with the subject that the omission of these chapters can hardly be called a loss. Then too, much of the "fine writing," which the French introduce into their scientific works, is ridiculous when translated, and this also is left out. Light, Temperature, Wind, Water, and Electricity, are discussed in a way to give the reader an outline of the causes which originate facts of every day occurrence in the atmosphere, and furnish an insight into the general principles which produce the phenomena we are familiar with. Some of these well authenticated facts, such as showers of fish, frogs, stones, and the like, seem like fiction. M. Flammarion has an interesting way of treating his subject which his translator has faithfully preserved.

KARL PETERMANN'S "Literaturgeschichtliches Lesebuch, 1 Band," is, as its name indicates, not only a reading-book, but a history of literature as well. It is divided into two parts, the ancient and modern, and these are subdivided into different periods, the last one extending from 1760 to 1820. Thus we have short histories of Klopstock, Herder, Lessing, Schiller, Goethe, and others, with selections from

their writings. Instead of giving isolated extracts from plays, the author explains the plot and introduces the quotations in their proper places, thus making a book which is understandable, and consequently enjoyable. This is the most scientific reading-book which has come to our notice. A student who uses it will not only gain proficiency in German, but will at the same time acquire a knowledge of the best authors, and of their writings.

"APPLETON'S EDUCATIONAL CATALOGUE" forms a book of eighty-four pages, and among its "Index of Authors" appear the names of some of the most renowned writers, such as Huxley, Sir Charles Lyell, Guizot, Roscoe, Youmans, Bayard Taylor, and others of equal note. It is a publication of which not only the publishers, but the friends of education as well, may justly be proud. Among the new things, we notice "Henslow's Botanical Charts," edited by Miss Youmans, which for accuracy and beauty, exceed anything in that line which we remember to have seen. The plan pursued is to first represent the plant in its natural size and color, and then to give a magnified section of the flower, showing the relation of the parts to each other. In addition to these, magnified views of the different floral organs are given. This is of great advantage, for often the plant characters are so minute, that they are difficult to find without first referring to an enlarged representation. Besides, these charts bring into a narrow compass a view of the structures of the leading types of the vegetable world, and show the relations existing between them. The English edition of Henslow's charts was too expensive; this edition, besides being cheaper, is better adapted to the study of American botany, since American specimens have been substituted for English species not found here.

G. P. PUTNAM'S SONS have added two books to their Elementary Science Series, one on "Organic Chemistry," and one on "Systematic and Economic Botany."

"A PERSON spells when he writes, but not when he speaks, and therefore written exercises in orthography must be of greater value to the student than oral exercises," says the Introduction to "Patterson's Speller and Analyzer," pub-

lished by Sheldon & Co. Upon this idea the work is founded. It consists of a spelling-book and exercise-book for writing words. After the dictation the pupil reviews his work, and checks misspelled words. These are re-written in a separate column, and are convenient for future study or reference. The book is well adapted to its purpose; but there is one objection to dictation exercises for young children; they are apt to write so hurriedly as to injure their handwriting.

MISCELLANEA.

A LECTURER undertook to explain to a village audience the word "phenomenon." "Maybe you don't know what a phenomenon is. Well, I'll tell you. You have seen a cow, no doubt. Well, a cow is not a phenomenon. You have seen an apple tree. Well, an apple tree is not a phenomenon. But when you see the cow go up the tree tail foremost, and pick the fruit, it is a phenomenon."

DR. OSWALD KERR, of Zurich, states that the original home of the flax was the shores of the Mediterranean. It can be shown that the plant was cultivated in Egypt 5,000 years ago. Flax is found among the remains of the oldest pile-dwelling in the Swiss Lakes, where neither hemp nor wool has been discovered.

AT the recent session of the Niagara County Teachers' Institute, Mr. Brown related that a teacher in one of our Western States was prohibited from teaching the rotundity of the earth, or that it revolved on its axis—or, in other words, "turned over," as the trustee said. For proof that such teaching was a dangerous error, "William Larkin sat up all night and never saw any such thing."

IN Maine, a young teacher has been trying to interest her pupils in botany and mineralogy by explaining to them the nature of the plant or stone gathered by them during Saturday rambles in the woods. Recently one of the committee

formally forbade her to do this any more, because "it filled the children's heads with nonsense, and prevented their studying." Oh, wise committee!

A RECENT author calls pie and doughnuts "unassimilable abominations."

PROF. STRONG, of the Drew Theological Seminary, Madison, N. J., is organizing an expedition to Egypt and the Holy Land. It will start about Christmas, and will embrace in its *personnel*, engineers, artists, scientists, and a select party of tourists, all under charge of Prof. Strong, assisted by Prof. T. Norman and Mr. George May Powell.

A TELEGRAM to the *Tribune* says: "Mrs. A. P. Taylor has a plurality of 352 in this city—Cairo, Ill.—and is probably elected School Superintendent, though the county vote, which is strong for Mrs. Brown, will make the race a close one. The male candidates for School Superintendent received but a small vote." Ichabod!

PUBLISHERS' DEPARTMENT.

ROBERT CLARKE & CO., Cincinnati, Ohio, have in press a reprint of "Essays on Educational Reform," by R. H. Quick, Trinity College, Cambridge. 1 vol., 12mo. $2.00. Extract from a letter of John Hancock, Esq., Supt. of Public Schools, Cincinnati: "I know of no educational work in English of equal value. No teacher, who has an ambition to emancipate himself from a servile adherence to the traditional methods of teaching, can read the book without profit. Beginning with Roger Ascham, it gives us an account of the lives and schemes of most of the great thinkers and workers in the educational field, down to Herbert Spencer, with the addition of a valuable appendix of thoughts and suggestions on teaching." Extract from a letter of Miss D. A. Lathrop, Principal of Normal School, Cincinnati: "I have for the past two years made it the basis of my class-work in history of education. I take pleasure in recommending it as one of the invaluable books for every teacher's library." As only a limited edition will be printed, teachers are requested to send their names in at once. Circulars, with testimonials from some of the leading educators, will be sent on application; also, a catalogue of valuable works on education, science of teaching, etc.

DOES IT PAY?—One of the Agents of *The Christian at Work*, T. De Witt Talmage's paper, recently obtained 380 subscriptions in about eighty hours absolute work. This was great work to be sure, but the agent had a fine paper and superb chromos to back him. There is room for more agents of the same sort. Samples and terms free. Office 102 Chambers street, New York. See advertisement.

A BEAUTIFUL pictorial library—chromo—latest style dress pattern for ladies—engravings—a premium of thirty articles—sent FREE and any magazine at less than cost. It will pay you to read the advertisement. "Do not wait—a great pictorial library, etc., for $1.25," in this number.

The Living Age, advertised in another place, will be clubbed with the AMERICAN EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY for $8.25 per an. The subscription price of the Living Age alone, for one year, postage paid, is $8.00.